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GEOGRAPHICAL RECORD

NORTH AMERICA

The Southern Red Hills of Alabama: A Study in Geographical Contrasts. The variation of human relations with the variation in physical conditions of a region is nicely illustrated by Roland M. Harper in the paper "Some Relations Between Soil, Climate, and Civilization in the Southern Red Hills of Alabama" (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, July, 1920). The southern red hills region, a division of the Coastal Plain of the southeastern United States, stretches from South Carolina to Mississippi as a red loamy belt contrasting strongly in its topography with the level sandy belts nearer the coast and bearing superficially a resemblance to the Piedmont (compare the map, Fig. 5, p. 380, and the diagram, Fig. 7, p. 383, illustrating the article by H. F. Cleland on "The Black Belt of Alabama"). In Alabama there is a somewhat pronounced contrast between the eastern and western sections of the belt itself. The east presents broad upland stretches cut by narrow swampy valleys. In the west dissection has proceeded further; the divides are reduced to narrow ridges, the valleys are broad. There also exists a climatic difference dependent on the progressive retardation of summer rains as one goes east from the Great Plains to Florida. In the western red hills the rainfall from April to June exceeds that from August to October. In the east the reverse is the case. Thus Pushmataha, near the western edge of the state, has an excess of early summer rainfall over that of late summer amounting to 5 inches. Eufala, on the eastern edge, has an excess of 1.5 inches in the reverse direction. Associated with this is a variation in soil fertility. Apparently the warm rains of late summer exercise a more efficient solvent action, leaching out the agronomically valuable mineral salts to a greater extent. With other factors this combines to give the advantage of soil fertility to the western section. That this is the case is well shown in the natural vegetation; thus the much greater abundance in the west of the sweet gum, a tree flourishing on the richer soils.

It is principally the advantage of soil fertility that is reflected in the earlier development of the western section of the red hills, though in some degree it may be attributed to greater accessibility. In 1820 the population of the western section was 4.7 to the square mile to 1.1 in the eastern section. Just before the Civil War the ratios were 11.5:7.3. It was not until the last decade of the century that the extension of railroads and the use of commercial fertilizer turned the balance in favor of the east with its smoother topography and lighter soils.

Today in percentage of land in farms, in area of improved land; in size of farms; in value of land, of farm property, of crops the east is superior to the west. But in dealing with these statistics it must be remembered that one is dealing with a region occupied by two races in unequal proportions. The early development of the western red hills was particularly associated with cotton cultivation and slave labor. In 1850 the whites in the western section formed only 47 per cent of the population against 83 in the east (in 1910 the ratios were 37:68). In *ante bellum* days the eastern section had no large plantations. Associated with this is a condition which Harper has elsewhere shown obtains generally in the South where the negro population exceeds that of the white (see the note "The Culture of the Southern States," *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 8, 1919, pp. 274-275). Among the white population of such regions the standard of living is comparatively higher than that among their neighbors where the negro is in the minority. Thus the illiteracy figure for the white population of the western red hills is 7.6 per cent against 13.1 per cent in the eastern red hills. In 1910 in the west the white farmer cultivated nearly twice as much land as his colored neighbor, and he lived in a house worth four times as much. In the east the land cultivated by white and negro farmers was about equal, while the value of the house of the former was about twice that of the latter. (Further details are given by Harper in "Resources of Southern Alabama," *Geol. Survey of Alabama Special Rept. No. 11*, 1920.)

And so in other relations contrasts are seen between these two sections of Alabama. As a whole the study is noteworthy in that it shows the importance of a geographical evaluation of census statistics.

Geographical Conceptions of a Primitive People: Yurok Geography. The Yurok Indians live in scattered settlements along the lower reaches of the Klamath River of northwestern California and for a distance of forty-two miles up and down the coast on either side of the river mouth. In "Yurok Geography" (*University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology*; Vol. 16. No. 5, 1920) T. T. Waterman gives an account of the geographic ideas of this primitive people and of the geographic conditions of their life.

Yurok cosmography is refreshingly naïve and childish; like most early people, these Indians think the earth is circular and surrounded by the ocean. The Klamath rises in the salt water to the east and cuts across the world, the center of which would seem to be a point near the confluence on the Klamath with the Trinity.

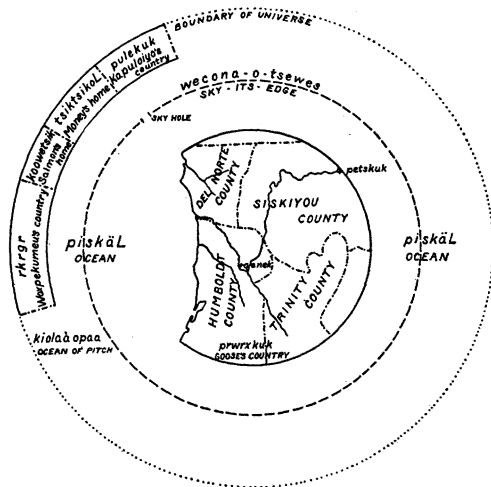


FIG. 1.—Diagram illustrating the Yurok idea of the world.
Reproduced from Figure 1 of the article cited in the text.

The Pacific bounds the land to the west, and one reaches the ocean in Humboldt County, Siskiyou County and southern Oregon to south, east, and north respectively. Not many miles beyond, the dome of the sky—pierced by a hole through which the wild geese fly—comes down to the waters. One can pass beneath the edge of the sky and reach a variety of mysterious regions on the western border of the universe.

The Yuroks do not express directions in terms of the heavenly bodies or of the compass; the river being an essential feature of their life, their fundamental conceptions of direction are *pets* and *pul*, or "up river" and "down river;" and, as the Klamath where it enters the sea is flowing from the southeast, *pul*, or "down stream" is applied also to a northerly direction along the coast.

Waterman is of the opinion that "local geography seems to mean rather more to the Yurok than is ordinarily the case with Indian tribes." They have certainly given place names to innumerable localities and objects on their frequented ways of seacoast and river bank. Practically every boulder has its name and every stack of rock offshore or on the beach. On the other hand, large hills or even mountains in the back country are unnamed. Moreover the Klamath itself bears no distinctive title, probably because it enters so vitally into everyday life and thought.

Yurok "towns" are all very small, the largest one containing only twenty-five houses. They are mainly found along the streams and seashore. The ones on the river show a marked favoritism for the northern or sunny bank. A certain quarrelsome and disposition to engage in feuds was responsible for the founding of many "towns" by persons who, for a variety of reasons, desired to sever relations with their old homes.

EUROPE

The New Frontiers of Hungary. The treaty signed at the Grand Trianon (see this number of the *Review*, p. 408) has left unrecognizable the old Hungary, "Kingdom of a Thousand Years." The new boundaries, which have less than half their former length, do not touch the old ones at any point. Only is there coincidence in part with the old internal frontier between Hungary proper and Croatia-Slavonia. The boundary with Czecho-Slovakia is approximately 375 miles in length; that with Rumania 180 miles; with Yugo-Slavia 340 miles; with Austria 125 miles. Formerly distinguished by their predominantly "natural" character—river or mountain crest—the present boundaries are almost entirely conventional. They enclose an area of approximately 35,000 square miles against the former area of 125,600 square miles and a population of approximately 7,500,000 (210 per square mile) against a former population (census of 1910) of 20,886,447 (165 per square mile).

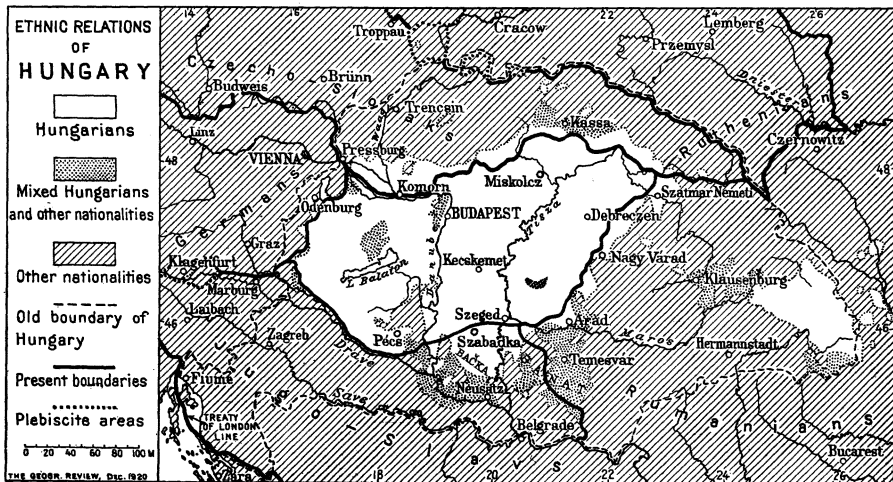


FIG. 1.—Map showing the ethnic relations of the new Hungary. Scale approximately 1:10,000,000.

Drawn in general on the principle of nationality the new boundaries make certain departures on strategic and economic grounds (L. Eisenmann: *La nouvelle Hongrie*, *Ann. de Géogr.*, September, 1920).

The old Hungarian Kingdom was approximately half Magyar; the new state is almost purely Magyar. The chief non-Magyar element is to be found in the German enclaves west of the Danube; there are also a few islets of Slav population as for instance in the Pécs region. Hungary, however, has probably lost some 2,000,000 of her nationals. The 600,000 Szeklers of Transylvania are irretrievably separated from their *confrères* by a solid block of Rumanian population 120 kilometers broad. East of Debreczen the Magyar population stretching out to the foothills of the Bihar has gone to Rumania with the railroad from the Czecho-Slovakian frontier to Nagy Szalonta, and Rumania also gets the important railroad junction of Arad. In the Bačka is Szabadka (Subotica) with a large Yugo-Slav population (50,000) awarded to the Serb-Croat-Slovene State with the territory to the south, though thereby the transfer of three times as many Magyars is involved (The New Frontiers of Hungary, *The New Europe*, January 15, 1920). There are more than half a million Magyars in Czecho-Slovakia. The Hungarian loss here includes the ancient capital, Pressburg (Bratislava), whereby the Slav state gains the necessary outlet on the Danube. It is principally strategic reasons that extend the riverine frontier to Gran. Eastward a strip of Magyar population is also included in Czecho-Slovakia, giving the new state uninterrupted rail communications with Rumania.

Another ethnic change, more significant than the numbers alone suggest, is the increased proportion of the Jewish element—5 to 7 per cent. The Jews have played an important

part in the financial and professional life of Hungary, and their increased preponderance intensifies an old problem.

Hungary has always been an agricultural state. The new boundaries impose upon her a still more exclusively agricultural character, though she has lost some of her best crop producing areas, notably the maize and wheat lands of the Bačka and the Banat and the barley and sugar beet fields and rich pastures of the Little Alföld north of the Danube (compare B. C. Wallis: *The Peoples of Hungary: Their Work on the Land*, *Geogr. Rev.*, Vol. 4, 1917, pp. 465-481). Compared with the old capacity it is estimated that the new territory will produce the following percentages: rye, 62; barley, 47; wheat, 40; maize, 27; hay, 29; potatoes, 41; beets, 37; wine, 62. The change of régime, however, is favorable to agricultural development. In particular one may look for a breaking up of the *latifundia* about Lake Balaton, an area which has always contributed largely to the emigration movement. The sheep of Transylvania, the cattle and sheep of Slovakia and Ruthenia, and a well developed cattle industry along the late Austrian frontier are also lost to Hungary. The percentage productive capacity in respect to live stock is thus estimated: cattle, 31; sheep, 26; pigs, 44; horses, 40. The two latter, however, will suffer the loss of the maize fields and pastures of the Bačka and Banat.

In 1890, of the Hungarian population gainfully employed 71 per cent was engaged in agriculture; 12 per cent in industry. In 1910 the numbers were 62 and 17. This was the result not only of natural progress but of a well defined state policy, political as well as economic. The urban centers were the focus of magyarization. But with the loss of the bordering hill country Hungary lost her chief industrial resources. In 1913 Hungary mined 20,500,000 quintals of iron ore. Her present productivity is estimated at one-fifth; the important mines of the north (in Gömör) and the southeast (in Hunyad and Krassó-Szörény) are lost and also the salt mines of Máramaros and those of Transylvania. On the other hand most of the carboniferous deposits remain. With the exception of the Pécs basin, containing reserves estimated at 110,000,000 tons, these fuel resources are of no great significance; the lignite beds of the Bakony near Budapest are approaching exhaustion. As it was before the war Hungary imported about one-third of her coal requirements. Poverty in coal was partly compensated by resources in water power and natural gas—forces whose exploitation was just beginning. Even more serious is the loss of the forests, of which it is estimated only 17 per cent remain, including 6.5 per cent of the coniferous forests.

Hungary loses several industrial towns, and others in the Magyar country which—thanks particularly to the policy of railroad development (Hungary had a greater mileage per unit population than Germany)—easily received their raw materials from the mines and forests are cut off from sources of supply. Discounting the latter circumstance, however, and assuming that other conditions remain as before, the industrial capacity of the new Hungary as compared with the old is estimated thus: metallurgy, two-fifths; weaving and spinning of cotton goods, one-quarter; of linen, one-half; of jute, three-quarters; of wool, one-tenth; tanneries, one-half. The agricultural industries are somewhat more favorably placed: flour mills, three-fifths; sugar refineries, two-fifths; distilleries, one-half; tobacco factories, one-half. The working population is likewise placed at about two-fifths of its former magnitude.

Budapest has figured to an abnormal degree in the industrial life of the nation. It seems inevitable that for a time at least this city of nearly a million in an agricultural state of less than 8,000,000 must show some decline. Compared with Vienna, however, the situation of Budapest is greatly superior. As a capital city Budapest remains most advantageously placed.

AFRICA

Mauritius and Réunion. Though conquered from France by Great Britain in 1810 and forming a part of the British Empire ever since, Mauritius has always been the home of a people French in language, traditions, and sympathies. Particularly since the armistice of 1918, but also before, a "retrocessionist" movement has been aggressively fostered by the creole leaders who have argued with skill and plausibility that not only the interests of the islanders but those of the British Empire as a whole will be served if only Great Britain can bring herself to perform the *geste élégant* of restoring the old "Île de France" to its original mother country. As a result of this movement, public attention in France has recently been directed towards Mauritius and its French neighbor, Réunion. Incidentally

to the propagandist purpose for which they were written, two recent articles on this subject furnish us with important geographical details. Especially noteworthy is the description and comparison of Réunion with Mauritius by P. Carié in the May, 1920, number of *La Géographie*, but H. de Rauville's article in *Colonies et Marine* for June 30, 1920, is also a valuable study, though more political and historical in character and mainly devoted to proving how very French the Mauritians are.

Both islands are volcanic. In Réunion the cycle of erosion has not progressed as far as in its sister isle, the terrain is more mountainous, and consequently the cultivated area less extensive and the population less numerous, although the island itself is somewhat larger. The greater range of altitudes is partially responsible for a large diversity in the kinds of crops raised, whereas in Mauritius practically all the cultivable soil is given over to sugar cane.

There are three main classes of society in Réunion: the indolent African negroes, the so-called "little whites," and the upper class of business and professional men. The second is by far the most interesting and individual; composed largely of the descendants of seventeenth century French refugees from Madagascar this people earns a livelihood by carrying on small handicrafts and agriculture on a limited scale. Many individuals from the upper class have made a name not only in their native island, but also in France, and even Mauritius, though owing allegiance to Great Britain, has contributed not a few distinguished scientists, doctors, artists, lawyers, and soldiers to the service of the French nation.

The greatest obstacle in the way of the prosperity of Réunion has been the lack of cheap labor. The African element is too lazy and unreliable to be worth much, and emigration of Hindus from India to this French island has not been permitted for many years. Mauritius, on the other hand, was until 1907 open to Indian immigration, and there the Hindus and their children have been an invaluable resource (Indians formed 70 per cent of the population according to the 1911 census). Réunion furthermore suffers from the lack of a good harbor, whereas Mauritius rejoices in two fine ports. In addition, Carié claims that the free institutions of Réunion—the right of universal suffrage and more particularly the privilege of electing colonial representatives who sit in Paris—as compared with the deadening "administrative tyranny" of Mauritius, tend to make politics play altogether too important a part in everyday life. "La manne électorale, chez les Africains et chez beaucoup de petits blancs, remplace agréablement le travail." Though hardly venturing to do more than hint at the remedies that should be taken to do away with this evil, he suggests that for colonial representation some form of colonial home rule should be substituted and dreams of the ultimate formation of a *bloc français* in the Indian Ocean composed of Madagascar, Réunion, and Mauritius.

POLAR REGIONS

A Note on "Eskimo Stone Rows in Greenland." The stone monuments recorded by Porsild in the November number of the *Review* are very remarkable. As far as I can discover, there is no mention of hopping-stones, or of any hopping game, from any other Eskimo area, although the word *nangerpoq* "he hops," is known in Labrador and Hudson Bay. The game described by Porsild must surely have originated in western Greenland.

The stone fence at Saputit is also, I believe, without a parallel in Arctic America. It is true that hunting fences are mentioned by several explorers, but what they meant were lines of single stones, or sods of earth, or occasionally sticks and stumps of wood, set up at intervals of from 20 to 40 yards from one another. As a rule two such rows are erected, one on either side of a valley in which caribou are grazing. The women and children then drive the deer down between these lines, (which appear to the frightened game like the heads of hunters), either into a lake, where the men are waiting in their kayaks to spear them in the water, or else through a narrow gap where the hunters, armed with bows and arrows (nowadays often with rifles), shoot at them from the concealment of hollows and shallow pits. Old alignments of this nature are found everywhere from Alaska to Hudson Bay, and new ones are constantly being erected even now by the Eskimos around Coronation Gulf. The traveler will often find in their vicinity small circular or semicircular stone shelters where the hunters have lain in wait, and stone cairns where they have cached their meat. But true fences of stone have never been recorded outside of Greenland, unless one includes the low dams that block the mouths or outlets of the salmon creeks.

D. JENNESS

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY

A Famous Seventeenth Century Map of Italy. The early seventeenth-century Paduan geographer and astronomer G. A. Magini compiled a large atlas of Italy, which was completed in 1604 though not published until 1620, after his death. In the latter year his son Fabio brought out this great monument of cartography consisting of no less than sixty detailed maps. The atlas, however, did not include a general map of the peninsula, the existence of which is indicated in documents concerning the Magini, and in a vain search for a copy of which many libraries had been ransacked, until about three years ago, when Professor R. Almagià of the University of Rome was fortunate enough to discover one. This forms the subject of a brief article in the March-April (1920) number of *L'Universo* (a new periodical issued by the Istituto Geografico Militare of Florence), and to it Professor Almagià intends to devote a more extensive discussion in a proposed work on the cartography of Magini.

The general map bears the title "Italia Nova di G. A. Magini." Drawn from data which had been used in making the Atlas, it was not published until 1608 on account of difficulties in securing the services of an engraver. Within its ample dimensions (115.5 x 89 centimeters), it depicts the whole of Italy and the shores of the Adriatic, but only the north-eastern corner of Sicily, and that, together with southern Sardinia and the tip of Calabria, in a state damaged beyond recognition. On the undamaged parts of the map the wealth of detail is extraordinary both in place names and in the representation of river systems; the principal chains of Alps and Apennines are also shown, together with political boundaries of two grades of importance.

Magini, through his connections with Francesco Gonzaga, prince of Mantua and Montferrat, and with other influential persons at the courts of Italy, undoubtedly had access to unpublished official and private documents. By the use of these materials he was enabled to compile a map superior to those of all of his contemporaries. Reproductions of his "Italia Nova" are now very rare though there are in existence a few which were published at later dates and with slight modifications of the original. On the other hand, as Almagià explains, the data contained in the map "reduced and simplified for the purposes of convenience but without any noticeable improvement and without bearing the author's name, entered into many of the famous foreign atlases like those of Hondius, Blaeu, Janson, Visscher and Seuter. In this way the map exerted an immense influence on the cartography of the sixteenth century, and, recognized probably by all as the best product of its epoch, enjoyed for about a century a well-earned fame."

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

The Growth and Needs of Oceanography. This year for the first time in the history of the British Association the presidential address was delivered by an oceanographer (*Nature*, August 26, 1920, and *Science*, September 3, 1920). It is fitting, therefore, that Dr. Herdman prefaced the main theme of his speech by a sketch of the growth of this "youngest of sciences." For, according to the veteran oceanographer Buchanan, it was born "a little to the westward of Teneriffe on February 15, 1873," with the first oceanic sounding of the *Challenger*. To Buchanan's story "A Retrospect of Oceanography in the Twenty Years Before 1895," retold in his second collection of essays "Accounts Rendered of Work Done and Things Seen" (1919), Herdman adds comment on the preliminary work leading up to the first deep-sea expedition and in its most notable successors whereby in a comparatively short space of time "we know the distribution of temperatures and salinities over a great part of the surface and a good deal of the bottom of the oceans, and some of the more important oceanic currents have been charted and their periodic variations, such as those of the Gulf Stream, are being studied. We know a good deal about the organisms floating or swimming in the surface waters (the epiplankton), and also those brought up by our dredges and trawls from the bottom in many parts of the world although every expedition still makes large additions to knowledge."

The field of oceanography, which is described as of a peculiarly "annectant" character, has broadened to a vast range of problems. Many of these have an unusual interest for the layman because of their practical bearing. Take for instance the study of deep-sea deposits commenced by Murray on the *Challenger*. Among the results of Murray's researches was the discovery of phosphate rock off Christmas Island (south of Java)—a discovery

which has already brought the British government a revenue exceeding the total cost of the *Challenger* expedition.

During the war knowledge of the chemistry and physics of the ocean—of salinity and currents—proved of great value in regard to submarine operations and drifting mines (see note below, "The Drift of Mines in the North Atlantic"). In his outline of problems before the science of oceanography Herdman however confines himself to the biological side . . . "the ultimate causes of variations in the abundance, in the sizes, in the movements, and in the qualities of the fishes of our coastal industries." Alike from the extensive and the intensive points of view this dominantly economic side of oceanography—the ocean as a food reserve—is in need of investigation. New fishing grounds await discovery. In the discussion following the presidential address there was instanced the case of the vast shallow water area (under 100 fathoms), extending from around the Falkland Islands to Montevideo, of which our knowledge is limited to the results of eight trawling records, two by the *Challenger*, six by the *Albatross*. It is needless to comment on the limited knowledge of the controls governing fluctuations of the sea harvests in our old established fishing grounds. There is the spectacular case of the tilefish which was discovered off Nantucket in 1879, disappeared in a wholesale destruction in 1882, and lately reappeared in numbers sufficient to maintain an important fishery. The responsible factor is held to be changes in temperature due to changes in régime of the currents, whence arises the practical question of the frequency of such changes.

The Drift of Mines in the North Atlantic. The oceanographical essays of Buchanan to which reference has been made above ("Accounts Rendered") include a description of

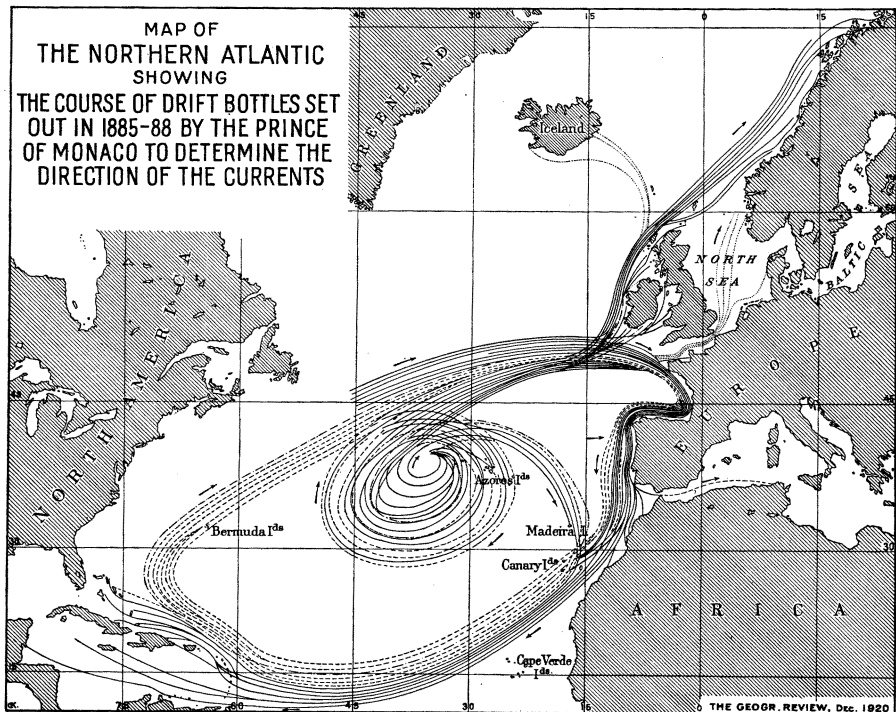


FIG. 1.—Map illustrating the courses of drifting mines in the northern Atlantic.

one of the notable events in the history of oceanography—the establishment of the Oceanographical Museum of Monaco and an appreciation of the work of its founder, the Prince of Monaco. Perhaps the best known phase of this work is the series of observations on the currents of the North Atlantic based on the methodical dispersion of floats from the *Hiron-*

delle during the years 1885-1888. A recent practical result is the application to the break-up of the mine fields sown during the war in the waters of western Europe.

In general the drifting mines will follow definite courses whose routes are shown on the accompanying map (S. A. S. Albert, Prince of Monaco: *Marche des mines flottantes dans l'Atlantique Nord et l'océan Glacial pendant et après la guerre*, *Bull. l'Inst. Océanogr.* No. 357, 1919). Mines strewn in the northern waters (the North Sea and off western Britain) will be carried to the Norwegian fiords. In conjunction with the action of tides and storms in the narrow English Channel the course of mines is here more variable; of those not washed to either shore some will travel northward and others will join with those from off the western coast of France, Spain, Portugal, and Morocco. These enter into the great oceanic circulation drifting to the West Indies, and pass into the Gulf Stream to be lost in the circulation of the Sargasso Sea or to return, after a period estimated at about four years, to the mouth of the English Channel.

At certain points there will be a tendency to concentration of drifting mines. Such danger zones are the Gulf of Gascony between Bordeaux and Cape Finisterre; the western coast of Portugal and that of Morocco; the Canaries and Madeira; the Azores.

The Beauty of Geographical Features. The annual address of the President of the Royal Geographical Society, Col. Sir Francis Younghusband, is noteworthy for its appeal to the emotions rather than to the understanding, or perhaps to the emotions through the understanding (*Geogr. Journ.*, July, 1920). He holds that the beauty of the face of the earth is more worth "learning about, knowing, and understanding" than any other phase of geographical science. Younghusband's career as an explorer of innermost Asia and Tibet, and as administrator of Kashmir has given him an extensive knowledge of an overlarge continent, and his reports concerning places and peoples have been of much importance to the British government; but he regards his knowledge of the beauty of the mountains, plateaus, plains, and valleys in that vast region as "most worth having" and of "most geographical value." He urges, furthermore, that the beauty of a landscape should not only be enjoyed by the observer but should be adequately described by him so that it may be understood and enjoyed by many others. The description should not be "shallow rhapsodizing of the journalese and guidebook type, but true expression in which each noun exactly fits the object, each epithet is truly applicable, and each phrase rightly turned, and in which the emphasis is placed on the precisely right point, and the whole composed so as distinctly to bring out that point."

The address, which has set forth a high and admirable ideal, ought to serve as a timely antidote to the over-utilitarian form of geography which is now in vogue with educators probably on account of its vocational value. But the address leaves the reader in some uncertainty as to how far the beauty of a landscape is to be regarded as objective and inherent in the geographical reality, or subjective and evoked from the geographer's mentality. A solution of this uncertainty may be implied in the above-quoted opinion that an "understanding" of landscape beauty is well worth working for. If so, Younghusband should be regarded as a strong advocate of the explanatory description of land forms; for enjoyment grows enormously with their true interpretation, so much so indeed that a geographer who understands landscapes and recognizes the subtle meaning and relation of their parts finds beauty and charm in many a prospect that leaves an otherwise-minded observer unmoved. Even the barren landscapes of Tibet, with their uncounted alternations of rugged mountain ranges and smooth intermont plains, may have their "own particular beauty" to a traveler who is not blinded to their appeal by the difficulties of traveling over them. Nothing will help so much to struggle against blinding difficulties as a close scrutiny of the region around him in earnest and thoughtful search for the deep significance of its outward expression; that is, for the truth about it; and in just such measure as his search is rewarded will the real beauty of the region be perceived and the enjoyment of it grow. He will then feel more and more that "Beauty is truth, truth beauty."

W. M. DAVIS